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PANORAMA

Teaching Throughout the World



A WCOTP Survey

CHILD HEALTH AND THE SCHOOL

*Secondary Education and the Modern World
New Guidelines for Education in England and Pakistan*

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(a) To foster a conception of education directed towards the promotion of international understanding and goodwill, with a view to safeguarding peace and freedom and respect for human dignity;

(b) To improve teaching methods, educational organization and the academic and professional training of teachers so as to equip them better to serve the interests of youth;

(c) To defend the rights and the material and moral interests of the teaching profession;

(d) To promote closer relationships between teachers in the different countries.

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CHILD HEALTH AND THE SCHOOL

Each year the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession makes a study of some topic of interest to all teachers. The 1960 topic is "Child Health and the School." The study is divided into four sections: (1) existing conditions in relation to health services, healthful school living, and health teaching; (2) problems facing the school and teachers in relation to child health; (3) conditions related to the protection of the health of the teacher and to the pre-service and in-service training teachers receive that will enable them to carry out their responsibilities for child health; and (4) action teacher organizations might take on the local, national, and international levels to improve the health of pupils, the health of teachers and community health.

On the basis of reports submitted by WCOTP national members, a synthesis was

prepared as documentation for the WCOTP Regional Conferences in Kuala Lumpur, Malaya (April 1960) and in Kampala, Uganda (May 1960). Further discussions of this topic will take place at the WCOTP Assembly of Delegates in Amsterdam (August 1960), where final resolutions and recommendations will be drafted. Discussions of the theme will be published in the 1960 WCOTP Annual Report, and the final synthesis, plus the national reports, in a separate booklet entitled Child Health and the School. Both publications will appear after the Amsterdam Assembly.

The following excerpts are taken from the preliminary synthesis of the national reports, prepared with the cooperation of a special consultant for the 1960 Theme, Dr. Elsa Schneider.

WIDE DIFFERENCES exist in the purposes, organization, scope, size, and conduct of school health services. Theoretically, in some countries through government sponsored plans health services including treatment are available for all children. That limitations of time, staff, and facilities make this a hope rather than reality is pointed up in some of the reports. In other countries, effective programs for the protection and promotion of child health have been developed by the home, school and community. In some countries, few health services are provided for children. In every country, there is hope that increasingly adequate ways will be found to provide young people with the health guidance and care they need.

Collaboration among the services, teachers and home is accomplished to a greater degree in some places than in others. Examples of cooperation cited most frequently are as follows: parents are invited to be present when their children are to be examined; medical officers frequently address meetings of parents and teachers on pertinent health issues; school, home and community systematically collaborate through the school Health Councils; co-operation is friendly, warm and informal; teaching personnel serve as a liaison between the home and the health service; teachers are expected to cooperate closely with school medical officers, public health nurses and school dental nurses.

Fifteen associations made comments which describe the role of the nurse. The role varies from country to country; replies received covered the following duties:

- Help plan the health program
- Work with families, medical and dental groups, and community agencies to improve follow up programs
- Serve as liaison between the home and the school Health Service
- Assist the physician with examinations of children
- Treat minor illness
- Vaccinate children, give tuberculosis tests and otherwise participate in the immunization program
- Use procedures for screening hearing and vision
- Weigh and measure children
- Keep cumulative health records
- Teach home nursing, child care and furnish aid to parents and teachers
- Work closely with the teacher or teachers

The report from *Yugoslavia* stated that there are no nurses in school institutions but only doctor's assistants who have finished middle medical school. Their duty is to keep health records, assist the doctor during examinations by entering the appropriate data, and to give injections and medicine according to the doctor's prescriptions.



SCHOOL health clubs throughout Burma are helping to carry out government health programs with the assistance of the United Nations Children's Fund and the World Health Organization of the United Nations. (UNICEF Photo)

Twelve associations furnished comments in relation to the role of the teacher. In condensed form they include:

- Provide health teaching
- Maintain healthful environment
- Interpret the School Health Service to the home and develop home-school cooperation
- Prepare children for the health examination program
- Cooperate with the medical profession
- Be present when the children are examined. In this way teachers learn a great deal about the child, and, in turn, can present indications that they have noted to the examining doctor
- Be taught by the school nurse how to treat minor ailments and how to meet emergencies
- Observe children and look for defects and take steps to draw the child's health problem to the attention of the proper authorities
- Weigh and measure children periodically
- Use procedures for screening of hearing and vision

The Ulster Teachers' Union (*Northern Ireland*) reported that the teacher has no direct role in the school health program beyond the supervision of milk and meal services but does generally work with the Health Visitor in tracing defects in hearing and vision.

School Buildings

The world over the problem is the same—too many children for the school buildings that exist. If the buildings reported to be unhealthful were torn down the problem would be compounded. There is evidence that valiant efforts are being made to provide school facilities that are healthful, safe, and conducive to learning. The fact remains that great differences of opportunity exist in most countries. The report made by the *Malta* Union of Teachers illustrates this point, namely, that even though the school building program has been accentuated in recent years and modern schools complete with sanitary amenities have been constructed, hundreds of children continue to receive

their education in make-shift premises and unhygienic classrooms and surroundings. The enormity of the problem in some countries is stated concisely in some statistics supplied by the Federazione Nazionale Insegnanti Scuole Medie of *Italy*—"If all children between the ages of 11 and 14 years are going to attend school as the new law has proposed, 70,000 schools will be needed. Children come to school now in two shifts in antiquated buildings."

The replies indicate that increasingly laws or regulations are being developed which require that attention be given to such health factors as lighting, ventilation, heating, sanitation, safety (including protection against fire), noise and over-crowdedness.

For some children, the school provides a more healthful environment than does the home. There is the feeling that in communities where this is true, the school should make every effort to serve as a model of healthful living.

Scheduling the School Day

What has been done in planning the curriculum and scheduling the school day in order to avoid overload on the student? These selected comments are of special interest:

Overloading has always been a problem. Two steps have been taken to remedy it. The first step was to limit the schedule to 30, 32 or 35 hours a week instead of 40 hours. The second step was to limit the importance of homework by limiting it to 2 hours or less, but without success. The zeal of professors who are specialists always abounds in giving detailed homework outlines. (*Belgium*).

For children of 7 to 11 years of age each period of study does not exceed 45 minutes. Each day 2 breaks are required, one for 15 minutes and another 60 minutes for lunch. For fifteen year olds the periods are 50-55 minutes with the same breaks as mentioned above. In addition much has been done to take care of differences among students especially giving them a choice of electives. In health and physical education as well, each student can display his interest and abilities. (*Thailand*).

Alternation of work and relaxation is fairly done—45 minutes of work and 15 minutes of relaxation. Nevertheless, distribution of work hours and relaxation hours for specially delicate children is left to the discretion of the elementary school and to the students' organization in secondary schools. (*Korea*).

As a general rule there are 10 minutes of relaxation between the class hours for all students. In lower grades, pupils have one or two class periods for playing every day. (*China*).

Physical Education

All associations responding to the Inquiry indicated that physical education is included in the school program in their respective countries. To varying degrees such activities as games, sports, gymnastics, and dance are included in the instructional program. Swimming is included when facilities permit.

In the main, classroom teachers are responsible for teaching physical education in primary schools. In some cases guidance is provided by physical education specialists who serve in one or more schools. In *Belgium* physical education is taught by specialist teachers who are highly trained in gymnastics, dance, sports, athletics and hygiene; they carry major responsibility for the child's physical well-being in many schools.

Health Teaching

A number of the responding countries indicated that health instruction is provided rather extensively for specified periods of time or through planned integration into other subjects.

In *China*, for children from 6 to 12 years of age, one-half hour a week is devoted to emphasizing the formation of habits apart from imparting knowledge. A specially trained teacher works with the children during this time. The assigned teachers are usually selected from those who have been trained in short training courses in school health. In addition to the direct teaching, the children gain generalized knowledge about health as they work with their classroom teacher in such subject matter areas as natural science and language. Beginning with children who are 13 years old, two periods per week during the entire second year of junior high school are devoted to a course called Physiology and Hygiene. This course is taught by a teacher who was graduated from the Department of Health Education, Taiwan Normal University. In addition, health teaching is provided in biology and home economics as well as in Boy Scout training.

In *Ghana* the curriculum of all schools deals with the problems of health. At present one-half hour per week for 7 to 11 year old children and 40-45 minutes per week for 15 year olds are devoted to health teaching. At the junior ages there is additional incidental teaching. Among the older children the teaching is supplemented more specifically through the natural sciences and physical education. Teaching about nutrition and prevention of disease is emphasized.

(Continued on page 17)

THE CASE FOR ART EDUCATION

by H. S. BROUDY

Adapted from the January 1960 issue of Art Education, journal of the National Art Education Association, a department of the National Education Association of the U. S. A. The author is a professor of education at the University of Illinois.

THE CLAIM that art and music are as useful in schools as arithmetic and science has dubious validity. Though artistic activity produces important results, the sort of art that does this for most people most of the time is not the kind that has to be studied in school.

We learn how to feel about love, death, success, war, and peace in the movies, popular fiction, the top 20 tunes in the jukebox, the advertising layouts in our magazines and newspapers. These arts present in perceptual form images or models that objectify and exhibit the current fashion in what is desirable and repulsive.

Is there an art to which ordinary routines of life do not give the pupil adequate access? In one sense the answer is no, because anyone, if he tries hard enough, can visit museums and libraries, listen to concerts and recordings. We are justly proud of the accessibility of all types of art objects, and the techniques of the mass media deserve much of the credit for it.

In another sense, however, certain realms of art are effectively closed off from many people. When considerable facility or acquaintance with the methods of making or viewing an art object is required for appreciation, ignorance is as effective a bar as a wall. Poor readers cannot do much with Proust's novels and a lack of familiarity with Greek mythology makes for a frustrating experience with Milton's *Paradise Lost*.

That is one reason for the irritation of the untutored viewer *vis-a-vis* abstract painting. He looks for what is not there and he does not know what to do with what is there. This irritation is sometimes relieved by suggesting that the painting be viewed as a piece of wallpaper or floor covering. Hard as this is on the soul of the artist, it does, however, halt the viewer's frantic search for familiar themes and objects.

Serious art, by and large, does make demands that popular art does not: sensitive discrimination, awareness of form, some familiarity with technique, and, above all, an active and concentrated attention.

Insofar as this is the case, serious art is not easily accessible to the untutored.

Because facility with serious art requires skill and knowledge not acquired incidentally, it makes sense for the school to offer a program of art education. But because such training entails effort that the child may be reluctant to exert, to require it of everyone calls for a promise to the child and to society. To the child must be promised enjoyment and satisfaction above and beyond those afforded by the popular arts; to society must be promised a strengthening of the people's commitment to its ideals and aspirations, and, what may be even more important, a constant examination and evaluation of them.

The theoretical justification for education in serious art lies in the claim that it trains the feeling side of life just as other studies train the intellectual side and still others perfect bodily skills, and that it does so in a way that goes beyond the educative effects of popular art.

Two problems seem to emerge if we take this line of persuasion with school boards and parents. First, whether the school need do more than provide an environment in which the child's natural expressive impulses are allowed to manifest themselves in paint, clay, etc., with a maximum of freedom and a minimum of technical requirements. If this is the case, then it need not require much more than time in the program, a wide variety of materials, and an encouraging teacher.

Casting doubt on this approach is the well-nigh universal testimony of artists and connoisseurs in all fields that their achievements do not come naturally. On the contrary, they complain with almost tedious uniformity about the hard work their artistic endeavors entail. Serious art on the producing or the appreciating side is not for the lazy, nor presumably for the untrained. If, however, there is nothing systematic to teach, no special way of teaching it, and no effort required to learn it, the fuss about the art program is much ado about nothing.

The second point is that a program of art education which proposes to train pupils for the appreciation of serious art is not innocuous; it can be dangerous.

Serious art presents us with models of feeling that are neither so familiar nor so safe as those presented by the popular arts. Popular art gives



SCHOOLGIRLS in Bangkok, Thailand, visit Unesco-sponsored exhibition of reproductions of famous paintings. (Unesco Photo)

aesthetic form to the values that most of the people are enjoying or would like to enjoy in a manner approved by the social order. Just as there are standard models of cars and refrigerators, so there are standard ways of feeling about love, war, marriage, death, home, etc. In the popular song, picture, photograph, movie, and story the average man recognizes his everyday problems and the standard solutions.

Serious art, on the other hand, tries to disclose modes of feelings that in our ordinary life we rarely experience, and would probably prefer not to experience at all. Most of us do not want to engage in heroic episodes of love, war, or politics, but in every epoch a few works of art depict mankind in such heroic and convincing roles that we see in them our species at its best. These works become certified as "great" works of art, but not always by their contemporary publics.

Contemporary art when serious criticizes the values of its culture. Sometimes this criticism is in the form of a protest; at others, it simply experiments freely with emotions and their expression in unusual forms.

Serious art, whether in its classical or contemporaneous form, whether freely experimental or definitely idealistic, confronts the child with models of experience and feeling that are not typical of the life going on around him. The images it offers the

child are not mirrors of life but projections of what life might feel like. All of these images are distortions. Some are interesting and important; some border on the insane; and a few disclose visions of feeling that haul mankind up another rung on the ladder of civilization.

All of which means that, when the school takes serious art seriously, it cannot expose the immature pupil to anything and everything, and this in turn presupposes a high order of aesthetic sophistication and competence on the part of all teachers who have a part in the program.

So conceived and defended, a case can be made out for art education as an integral part of general education. That school boards and other appropriating agencies will be convinced is not so certain. True art presents the tension between the conventional and the experimental that is never absent from a changing society. The artistic experience is intermittent and celebrative; it gives meaning and glow to life but it neither creates life nor sustains it. The school must pay attention to all aspects of living—economic, intellectual, moral, and social—and if it must make a choice between preserving and sustaining life, on one hand, and making it glow, on the other, there is no question as to what it will have to choose. But we no longer face such a hard choice. If we did, we would not be discussing art education at all.

GUIDELINES FOR EDUCATION IN PAKISTAN

Last year a commission on national education delivered a comprehensive report to the Government of Pakistan on virtually all phases of that country's educational life. The Government has now distributed, with its endorsement, a document listing many broad policy reforms and specific suggestions contained in the report. Excerpts from the Government document are given here in the belief that the problems and solutions discussed have great significance for teachers, not only in Pakistan, but in many other nations. The numbering of paragraphs does not follow that of the original Government document.

General Principles

1. Our educational system, specifically at the university level, should pursue quality as an essential objective, and its end-products in arts and sciences should be comparable in competence and achievement with the end-products of other educational systems in the world, e.g., British, American and Russian. We may produce fewer persons in this category but the competitive conditions of the world today do not permit a less exacting criterion of excellence. We must reject the concept that since we are a poor nation we should be content with inferior products from our educational institutions.

2. The primary function of a teacher is to stimulate the interest of students and to awaken in them a spirit of inquiry and criticism. This he cannot do only through lectures which unfortunately have come to be regarded as the exclusive function of the teacher. A teacher's functions include lectures, tutorials, guidance and self-improvement and he must devote not less than 1500 hours an academic year for the performance of these functions. Similarly, the student must be made to realize that his task is not only to attend lectures but also to spend a considerable portion of his time with the teacher and in the library. It is only through hard work and application on the part of both the teacher and the taught that an atmosphere conducive to the pursuit of learning and search for truth can be developed.

3. Practical arts should be introduced in elementary classes of all schools; the curriculum of general education in the schools should be diversified by including practical courses in technical

subjects—agriculture, home economics; vocational schools should include courses in social studies and humanities. At the university level, the curriculum of professional institutions should emphasize parity of esteem between basic sciences and professional studies. In addition, there should be provision for the study of social sciences and humanities. The development of the individual as a worker is achieved through the same educational process as his development as a person and therefore technical and vocational education must be considered an integral part of the educational system.

4. None of the educational reforms will achieve the desired results unless they lead to the inculcation of personal and national values based on a deep concern for the welfare of Pakistan. Great stress is to be laid on the need for a change in attitude among our people, on a greater demonstration of personal, professional and public integrity, and on a readiness to render service to the community. Due emphasis must be given to the role of the educational system in the training of character, the preservation of the ideals which led to the creation of Pakistan, the strengthening of the feeling of a unified nation, and the perpetuation of the principles of truth, justice, benevolence, and brotherhood which are rooted in the spiritual values of the Islamic way of life.

5. In Pakistan there is widespread aversion to manual labor. This attitude must be changed, and we must remove all concepts of superior and inferior classes and recognize the honorable place of the craftsman, the technician and the laborer. Schools and colleges should contribute to the acceptance of manual labor by providing attractive opportunities in the vocational and technical fields and by giving the student a balanced and rational understanding of the varied and inter-related occupations required for national progress. To achieve this aim young children should be given the opportunity of working with hand tools. Vocational schools, polytechnics and technical institutions should be established and technical and vocational courses be offered as electives in general secondary schools. In this way the educational program itself will

deepen the student's understanding of and appreciation for manual work. However, this is not sufficient to eliminate the aversion to manual labor and the prejudice against those who perform it that has taken root in our society. The following further steps will be necessary:

a) All students at the primary and secondary stages should engage in some form of physical labor through a regular program provided for in the time table. For younger children this would take the form of the routine cleaning of the school premises, the maintenance of small garden plots, and similar tasks. Older children should engage in the repair and maintenance of school building and grounds, the construction of school buildings or additions to them, and in community projects such as health programs, clean-up campaigns, the cleaning and repair of wells and drains, and flood control work. In all these activities the teachers should work with and supervise the students in their work program.

b) At the college level students should engage in a program of organized summer work for a total of three months spread over two or three years. Under this plan the students would participate in projects involving "work experience"; undertake national service either in the armed services or in civil defense; or engage in a national program of adult literacy teaching. The "work experience" should be set as one of the requirements for a degree.

c) Women students at the college level should participate in organized programs either in nursing, adult education or in training for civil defense.

6. The nation must be assured that students with exceptional talent are identified at an early age and receive the training necessary for them to make the maximum contribution to the country's improvement. Since it is not possible to provide free education for everyone at all educational levels, steps must be taken to ensure that the opportunities for further education are not denied to able students because of their inability to pay for it. To achieve these aims, the following steps should be taken:

a) A comprehensive scholarship program should be instituted at all levels beyond the stage of free compulsory primary education with awards given to the best students at completion of Class V, VII, X, XII, and the college and university levels.

b) Adequate funds should be provided for this purpose and the financial cost of this scholarship program should be worked out by the Ministry of Education.

c) The scholarship program should be used to channel able students into those fields of study where the need for trained personnel is greatest as well as to break down regional barriers by encouraging students from one section of the country to study in another.

7. Education cannot be had "on the cheap." A sound and comprehensive educational program requires trained and competent teachers. It involves buildings, equipment, books and other facilities. All these require money. Moreover, the cost of living is continually rising and the salaries of teachers must keep pace with the rise, if competent people are to be attracted to the profession and retained in it. The development of a good educational system will require the maximum possible financial support from Government, the communities and the parents.

Areas of Emphasis

8. A number of fields of specialization which are of particular importance to the economic and social development of the nation are not provided for adequately in our universities. This gap can be filled in the following manner.

a) Courses and curricula should be revised and improved so as to bring them up to date and to provide for the growing needs of the country, particularly in the sphere of scientific and technical studies.

b) New subjects like sociology, home economics, public and business administration and journalism, which have acquired special importance recently, should be developed.

c) An institute providing instruction in modern languages should be established.

9. The teacher is at the very heart of an educational program and the quality of instruction will depend in large part on the ability, energy and dedication that he brings to his work. Delivering lectures is only a small part of the teacher's responsibility and it is essential for him to be present on the campus during working hours so that he can pursue his own studies and research and be available to students for counselling and guidance. The responsibilities of the teacher may appropriately be described as follows:

a) The proper functions of teachers in colleges and universities include teaching students through lectures, tutorials and laboratory work; research; personal study; and contact with students through personal guidance and the supervision of extra-curricular activities.

b) Although variations to utilize the particular talents of individual teachers should be permitted, their total work-load exclusive of vacations, holidays, leave and examinations should be not less than 1500 hours during the academic year with the load divided among the responsibilities previously referred to in the proportion set out in the Commission's Report.

c) The existing system of casual leave should be abolished and teachers should be given emergency leave for a few days per year. The rules should be so framed by the universities that avoidable absence is not permitted and emergency leave granted only in such circumstances which are beyond the control of the teachers.

10. To enable teachers to discharge their duties adequately, the following facilities should be provided by the universities and colleges:

a) Private rooms for study and for the guidance of students;

b) Well-stocked libraries with the necessary professional journals;

c) Laboratories and equipment for research; and

d) Cafeterias where they may take their meals at a reasonable price.

11. The nation cannot afford the tremendous drain on its human and financial resources that results from poor performance of students in colleges and universities. As a safeguard against this, persons seeking higher education should be properly qualified and possess the necessary aptitude. Moreover, such persons should be allowed to continue their studies only so long as they are willing to work hard and pursue their studies diligently. In developing habits of industry, consistency and self-discipline, the students must receive proper supervision and guidance from their teachers. This should be done on the following lines:

a) An organized program of counselling and guidance should be developed through which each teacher would be responsible for a small group of students. The teachers should be sympathetic to the students and should be able to recognize their problems and their pressures. This program should be under the direction of a senior member of the staff.

b) Each college and university should provide adequate playing fields for out-door sports and games; opportunities and accommodation for a variety of activities such as debate, drama, arts, indoor games and special interest societies; centers for the informal contact between teachers and students; sufficient library space for study and work

during leisure periods and after class hours; and cafeterias for inexpensive meals under sanitary conditions.

Secondary Education

12. The weaknesses of our present secondary education are uniformity of courses; the over-emphasis on literary subjects and the consequent lack of adequate opportunities for training in the many vocations offered in industry, commerce, and agriculture; and an inadequate recognition of individual differences in interests, aspirations and talents. To remove these weaknesses action is necessary on the following lines:

a) Secondary education should be recognized as a complete stage in itself and organized as a separate academic and administrative unit, demarcated in all respects from university education.

b) The curriculum at the secondary stage should be based on two principles. First, it must provide a compulsory core of subjects such as mathematics, science, the national language, English, general knowledge (including civics), etc., to give every pupil the knowledge he needs to live a useful and happy life. Secondly, it should provide opportunities for students to take, in accordance with their aptitudes and interests, a few elective subjects in the fields of technical, agricultural and commercial studies to prepare them for a definite vocational career.

c) Subjects should be allotted varying degrees of importance in respect of teaching time and should be introduced and terminated at different levels in different years. Every child should acquire a preliminary understanding of some 10 or 12 subjects by the time he has completed high school.

13. Secondary education must move in the direction of providing diversified programs through multi-purpose institutions. New types of schools should be established, or some of the existing schools developed. To achieve this objective, action may be taken on the following lines:

a) Consolidation should be an objective, and an effort should be made to improve approximately 50 per cent of the existing schools.

b) In each district a number of schools should be developed as multi-purpose schools. These schools should provide diversified programs of study.

c) The value of schools of the residential type should be recognized and every encouragement given to their development. They should be open to students from every part of the country and

efforts should be made to bring students from all regions into each of these institutions.

Primary Education

14. Compulsory education at the elementary level is essential if the country is to have an intelligent citizenry, able to understand and contribute to modern technological advances and the complex needs of a modern society. It is also indispensable for the proper identification of those talented young people who should be encouraged to continue their education to more advanced stages. To acquire these skills and proficiencies, at least eight years of compulsory schooling is necessary. The target, however, should be to achieve this in a phased program divided into two periods, the first of 5 years compulsory schooling within a period of 10 years followed by the next phase of 5 years when the duration of compulsory education will be extended to 8 years. The achievement of this target will entail considerable sacrifice from the community but it is hoped that, as the country's resources improve and as the basic democracies develop, it may be possible to achieve the target in or ahead of time.

Women's Education

15. Generally, educational reforms apply equally to boys and girls. However, there are special problems in the education of women for which the following measures are necessary:

a) In the future expansion of primary education, the facilities provided for girls should be, as far as feasible, equal to those provided for boys.

b) Women are temperamentally well suited to develop the character and capabilities of young children. The teaching of young children, both boys and girls, in the first three classes should, therefore, be appropriately entrusted to them, as qualified women teachers become available.

c) It is from the middle stage of education (Classes VI to VIII) onwards that girls' special needs begin to find expression. While most of the subjects will be common to both boys and girls, subjects of particular interest to girls such as elementary homecrafts, tailoring, weaving, cookery and home and child care should be introduced.

d) Technical and vocational schools should provide courses of training for women taking up careers. These should include those which will be of value to the defense service in times of emergency, such as secretarial work, the operation of

telecommunication and electronic equipment and the driving of light and heavy vehicles.

e) The diversification of subjects in our high schools should provide for courses in commercial subjects such as typing, stenography and book-keeping; food technology including dietetics, catering and canteen management; textile design and interior decoration.

f) A high priority must be given to the opening of departments of home economics in women's colleges and in the universities and to the establishment of additional institutions designed specifically for the study of this subject. The basic consideration in framing the course in home economics should be the adaptation of the subjects of study to conditions found in our country.

g) Departments of Art should be established as resources permit in women's colleges and in universities.

h) Women have special obligation to the community and in their role as wives and mothers they are responsible for the development of the character of the children and for their education at home and at school. To discharge this responsibility adequately, women should participate in an organized program of national service involving nursing or adult education or training in civil or military defense as a condition required for a university degree.

Conditions of Service

16. It is axiomatic that no system of education is better than its teachers. It is necessary to recruit men and women of the highest ability to the teaching profession at all levels and give them the status in our society which their importance warrants. To achieve these results, *inter alia*, the following measures are necessary:

a) Teachers should receive a scale of salary consistent with their qualifications, functions, responsibilities and status in national life.

b) Teachers should receive special merit awards from the President and Governors at appropriate occasions. The achievements of good teachers should be featured in the press, radio and newsreels.

c) Teachers must keep in touch with the latest teaching techniques by attending refresher courses at least once in 5 years.

d) All administrative staff, inspectors, headmasters and subject specialists for multi-purpose schools should undergo a program of in-service training periodically.

THE EDUCATION OF WOMEN IN NORTHERN NIGERIA

by H. MARGARET BURNESS

Adapted from the December 1959 issue of African Women, published twice a year by the Department of Education in Tropical Areas, University of London Institute of Education, Malet St., London, W.C.1. The author is adult education officer at Zaria, Nigeria.

EVER SINCE 1914 an intensified adult literacy campaign known as "the war against ignorance" has been going on in the Northern Region of Nigeria. During the five years of the campaign, a total of approximately 500,000 people throughout the Region have received literacy certificates, and there is every reason to believe that a far higher number have become functionally literate. With its original task on the way to being accomplished, the Adult Education Division of the Regional Ministry of Education is now opening more English classes, for which there is a growing demand, and concentrating on "Public Enlightenment" which takes the form of printed questions and answers, mostly on civics and health, used as a basis for discussions in adult classes and elsewhere.

From the beginning, classes were open to women as well as to men, and in some areas the response from women has always been good. But in the Northern areas of the Region, with their predominantly Moslem population, little response from women could be expected until separate classes taken by women instructors and supervised by women organizers had been set up. Even in areas where custom does not prevent women joining in mixed classes, it is likely that women instructors are more easily trained by women than by men, and that in most cases women make better progress in separate classes, especially if they are in the minority of the class. A women's section at Adult Education Headquarters, Zaria, was therefore clearly necessary, and was set up towards the end of 1956, with a staff of one Woman Education Officer and one Northern woman assistant. This assistant is herself a striking example of what an African woman can achieve without the benefit of a formal education. She has never been to school, but has had five years nursing training in United Kingdom, which is of the greatest value for the work she is doing.

It had, however, been realized from the beginning that the war against ignorance must be waged among women on a wider front than literacy alone. Something more than literacy must be offered, but clearly classes organized as part of the campaign neither could nor should attempt to offer anything comparable to the excellent housecraft teaching given in government and mission women's classes. It was therefore decided to gear into the existing machinery of the literacy campaign a series of courses on elementary homecraft subjects at a very simple level. The aims of this side of the campaign were defined as: (a) to spread simple devices, ideas and skills calculated to improve standards of living at the village level; (b) to use village women to spread them, thus accepting the aim of a class taken by a local woman at a simple level (provided it is efficient at that level) rather than a class at a higher level dependent on expatriate teaching; (c) the creation of an organization in which women's status could be enhanced, and in which they could find a stimulus for further development.

From the experience gained on the literacy campaign, it was clear that if instructors with little formal education were to be used, the first needs were a good teaching technique involving only one or two simple methods, and an "instructors' guide" as foolproof as possible. A simple list of essential equipment, easily available in the local market, which would cost Native Authorities no more than the equipment of a literacy class, would also be needed. We felt that interest would more easily be captured by the introduction of simple labor saving devices rather than by constant reiteration of the need for routine measures, although the latter would certainly be needed. Bearing these considerations in mind, a start was made by evolving in Hausa, the lingua franca over a large area of the Region, two simple hygiene courses—the first called "clean food and water," and the second "a clean house." Each course includes two kinds of lesson only—question and answer, and practical. The question and answer technique was used to cover the simple theory included in the course, because the group discussion notes used in "Public Enlightenment" had already proved it to be far

easier for an untrained teacher than a lecture technique, and to elicit some response from pupils from the beginning. The course on "clean food and water" includes five Question and Answer lessons. The first, "germs that enter the body by mouth," gives a short introduction on the existence of germs, and the kinds of diseases they spread through food and water, with emphasis on dysentery, guinea worm, bilharzia and worm infections. The second lesson is called "drawing your drinking water" and considers the different sources from which water can be drawn, emphasizing, for example, the reasons for drawing from a cement lined well with a cover, rather than from an unlined well, and from the upper reaches of a stream rather than a swamp. The third lesson, "preparing your drinking water," explains the reasons behind two alternative methods of preparation—boiling and filtering in a bag, or filtering in a specially designed "filter pot" when firewood is hard to get—as it is in so much of the bare open plains of the North. This simple pottery filter, now being made by many village potters, is perhaps the most "eyecatching" of the devices we are trying to introduce. The fourth Question and Answer lesson, "clean food," explains the reasons for clean hands, clean utensils and covered food, and the last lesson, "a clean latrine," shows all such precautions can be rendered useless by a dirty latrine, or lack of a latrine. Each Question and Answer lesson is followed by a series of practical lessons based on it: e.g., after the lesson on "clean food" the class first sets up a calabash wash stand on a "scout" tripod, and a kitchen table of local material, then prepares a typical local meal, using these devices, and all the other hygienic precautions indicated in the Question and Answer lesson. Practical lessons are done as a piece of communal work, and are repeated until every member of the class has taken in each different part of the task. The course on "a clean house" is similar, emphasizing precautions against skin diseases.

After preparing the first draft of this material, the women's section of Adult Education Headquarters began a series of training courses for instructors in different centers of the Region. At first, they worked as a team, but now take turns to hold courses in different areas. The women who attend these courses are selected as potential instructors in hygiene by their Native Authorities. The only qualifications required for selection are literacy in Hausa, and suitability in the eyes of their own communities. During the course, we try to select those who show themselves capable of dealing with the different aspects of the work, who have a reasonably high

standard of personal hygiene for themselves and any children they have brought with them, who show signs of developing a good teaching manner, and who cheerfully take their full share of the communal work. It is usual for about half the women attending a particular course to pass as Hygiene Instructors. Training for instructors in classes taking "clean food and water" lasts four weeks, and for those taking "a clean house" three weeks. Experience has shown four weeks to be the maximum period for such courses; after that time, interest begins to flag, and the women become homesick. All courses are residential, and the women may bring with them babies too young to be left in charge of other members of their family, provided that they also bring a girl capable of acting as "nurse maid" during working hours.

Native Authorities are asked to provide a typical local compound for the duration of the course. Of the 13 instructors' training courses so far held by Headquarters' staff, 11 have been held in such compounds. There is no doubt that a local home is far more suitable than an institution for these courses. It is hard to teach the care of pit latrines in a school with waterborne sanitation, and the digging of sump pits in a center with sinks and proper drainage. Local homes also make it easier to observe the customs of the women attending the course. Over 100 of the instructors so far trained are married Moslem women, normally enclosed, who could not be allowed to attend any course in which their privacy could not be guaranteed. A local compound, with its high wall and series of entrance porches, makes it simple to observe their customs in this respect.

During the course, the women cook their own food, and do all the work of the compound, with the help of the "labor-saving devices" which they set up at the beginning of the course. They build mud fireplaces for boiling drinking water, put up forked sticks as "clothes poles" and for hanging up the well bucket, dig small sump pits, and make kitchen tables of cornstalks, bamboo, or other local materials. On nearly every course, this hard physical work is done cheerfully with much laughter and singing, even by women who at home have servants to do all the heavy work of this kind. They learn the reasons for all these hygienic precautions from the Question and Answer lessons, which they are expected to study till they know them thoroughly. They copy into an exercise book an "instructors' guide" which shows them exactly what to do on each lesson of their course, both in Question and Answer and in practical lessons, and also how to

try to link the two kinds of lessons together in the minds of their pupils. A separate "instructors' guide" has to be prepared on each course, within the same general framework, because of wide local variations in household materials and customs. The instructors are shown how to use the guide, and, with its help, how to prepare the equipment they need for each lesson. Each instructor takes several Question and Answer and several practical lessons as "teaching practice." The others act as pupils, and as the course progresses, and they enter more into the spirit of the thing, they become adept at "acting dumb." An instructor who told her pupils to tie cornstalks together to make a tripod, and left it at that, was confronted with the three cornstalks neatly lashed together end to end.

At the end of the course, an Open Day is held, to which a large audience of local people is invited, including if possible the local chief, the Native Authority officials responsible for adult education, and the husbands of the women attending the course. Demonstration lessons are taught by the newly trained instructors, a "health play" is presented, and all the "labor saving" devices set up in the compound are explained and demonstrated by the women. In an area where good manners demand that a woman lower her voice and eyes should she

emerge from seclusion at all, the Open Day is the highest hurdle set for the potential instructor to overcome. An instructor who has successfully explained the intricacies of a filter pot to an Emir and his Councillors is less likely to be overcome by shyness when faced by a class of other women. The work owes much to Native Authority officials and other very busy men who have taken the trouble to attend Open Days and go round the compound, examining sump pits, and asking questions about filter bags. Women visitors are usually welcomed throughout the course, though on occasion a separate "Ladies Day" is held for them. On the last night of the course, a feast is usually prepared (with suitable hygiene precautions) and enjoyed by all who have taken part in the course, African or European. It is often followed by drumming and dancing—a song sung at one of the last courses included the words, "A woman who has not fought against ignorance is no better than an animal, a woman who does not care for cleanliness does not cook food which is worth eating." These songs were not composed by the women attending the course, but by professional entertainers from the town where the course was held. It is interesting how closely their songs reflect public opinion!

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THE CROWTHER REPORT: A PLAN FOR EDUCATION IN ENGLAND

Adapted from the December 11, 1959, issue of The Schoolmaster and Woman Teacher's Chronicle, official organ of the National Union of Teachers of England and Wales.

THE RAISING of the minimum school leaving age to 16 in 1966, 1967 or 1968 is recommended in the long-awaited Crowther Report. The report is presented by the Central Advisory Council for Education (England) and contains a 20-year program for the development of education for young people.

The Council, under the chairmanship of Sir Geoffrey Crowther, say they cannot in conscience advise that anything less is necessary "if the national educational system is to meet the requirements of this tumultuous and dynamic century." In pleading for a forward plan the Council say that there is as much need for a 20-year program of educational development as there is for similar programs of railway modernization or the atomic generation of electric power, and that it should be equally feasible to do.

There is some danger, the Council think, of the English educational machine lagging behind the times. "Even in the education of our brightest children—which is what the English system does best—there is a grave waste of talent through too early abandonment of formal education." The figures of 12 per cent of the age group still in full-time education at the age of 17, and 6 per cent at 20, "are not nearly good enough."

The report makes many recommendations for the education both of the brightest 25 per cent of children in the grammar schools and also for the great mass of ordinary children who leave school at or about the statutory leaving age. It is, however, in the group of young people between these two where the Council believes the greatest deficiencies are to be found. In this group lies the richest vein of untapped human resources, which has to be exploited "if this country is to keep a place among the nations that are in the van of spiritual and material progress."

The Council were asked, in March 1956, to consider the education of children from 15 to 18. Their

list of recommendations, which they recognize is "formidable," includes:

1. The raising of the minimum school leaving age by compulsion to sixteen in 1966, 1967 or 1968.

2. The introduction as soon as possible of legislation to substitute two school leaving dates each year, at Easter and July, for the present three (Easter, July and Christmas).

3. A planned program of experiment leading to the introduction in the early 1970's of compulsory part-time education for all boys and girls of 16 and 17 who are not already in full-time education.

4. A greater degree of integration between schools and further education; the provision of more time for all courses, and in particular, of sandwich courses (instead of part-time day release courses) for all those studying at technician level; and, as a long term aim, "the transformation of what is now a varied collection of plans for vocational training into a coherent national system of practical education."

5. Experiments with external examinations below the level of General Certificate of Education for pupils, mostly in modern schools, in their fifth year of secondary education, but on a local or regional scale, not national.

6. A variety of measures to avoid premature or excessive specialization in the grammar schools.

7. A number of proposals for meeting the greatly increased demand for teachers.

The Council do not believe that there is any hope of carrying out the measures they outline unless they are "worked out and adopted as a coherent, properly phased development program extending by timed and calculated steps a long way into the future. Nothing of this sort has ever hitherto been possible in English education."

Raising School Age

Recommending the raising of the school-leaving age, the report says the demand both for more educated workers and for more deeply educated workers is growing at almost all levels in industry. "Raising the school leaving age to 16 would give those near the bottom a better foundation and would be reflected in larger numbers receiving full-time education to 18 or beyond."

The strongest part of the case, says the report, is the general need for secondary education extending through the difficult and important period of adolescence. "Throughout the period . . . the welfare of the individual ought to come before any marginal contribution that he or she can make to the national income."

Many of the things that the schools can do for boys and girls can be carried much nearer completion by 16 than by 15. The additional year should offer new and challenging courses and not simply be a continuation of what has gone before.

The number of 15-year-olds staying on at school voluntarily is increasing, but the Council consider this trend provides only a precarious basis for a national system, and may depend to a considerable extent on the continuation of general prosperity and, in particular, a plentiful supply of good jobs for young workers.

The most favorable period for the change would be from 1965 to 1969 when it is estimated that the secondary school population will be in a valley between two peak periods. The most important consideration, out of many, is the requirement of teachers and the prospective supply. One of the years 1966-67-68 should be chosen now and announced at once, and a program prepared to ensure that the necessary conditions are met.

The report urges the Minister of Education to re-declare his intention to implement "at the earliest possible date" the provision of compulsory part-time education for all young persons of 16 and 17 who are not already in full-time education. "It is the widespread lack of belief in this intention which, in our view, has almost stopped the growth of all but the most clearly essential part-time release," says the report. The Council are especially concerned at the "loss of contact with the least skilled and least able section of the community as soon as they leave school, and with their loss of morale. In their interest we regard . . . a strong Youth Service as an essential complement to County Colleges, and we recommend that steps should be taken to develop it during the interim period."

Extended courses should be made available for all secondary modern school pupils, says the report. The target at which most authorities should aim would be a scale of provision for extended courses for half of their 15-year-olds by 1965. The Council consider that many—probably more than half—of our secondary modern school population would not, in fact, benefit by being prepared for an external examination.

Before the Sixth Form

The report refers to the serious congestion in the time table governing the work of the fourth and fifth years of the grammar school course, and says that in most schools the "practical and aesthetic subjects have ceased to be really available for abler pupils, and the time given to English subjects has been curtailed." This deprivation is especially serious, the Council consider, for "first generation" grammar school pupils. The congestion is caused by devoting more and more time to those subjects in which a pupil is proposing to specialize in the sixth form.

A situation arises in which four-fifths of the boys have virtually chosen their sixth form course by the age of 13 or 14. The Council recommend a review of the application of the syllabuses to ensure that "no doors are closed" before a pupil enters the sixth form.

This attempt "to keep all doors open" would involve in particular an examination of the status of foreign languages and science in the curriculum. The Council consider that Latin and two foreign languages provide a too-heavily biased curriculum for many "first generation" grammar school pupils, and those who are going to leave school at 16.

Wasted Talent

Although the proportion of pupils staying on into the sixth form in grammar schools has risen sharply in recent years, only about 12 per cent of the total 17-year-old age-group is in full-time education, and only 10 per cent are still at school. There is a considerable waste of talent through early leaving from grammar schools, in spite of the fact that the number of boys and girls in sixth forms last year was over two-thirds larger than in 1947. Nearly two-thirds of all boys and girls in school at age 17 are in maintained schools. More would stay on if there were a greater variety of curriculum open to them.

Hitherto, the sixth formers have been almost entirely drawn from the pupil group who attended a "selective" school for several years before the age of 15. There are, however, a small number who have transferred from secondary modern schools, and this figure may be expected to increase, says the Council. "It is clear," their report says, "that the absolute number in the sixth forms will continue to grow and that the total in the years 1965-1970 may approach double that of 1958." There is some doubt whether the opportunities for education at university level will match the increased need for places.

Staff for Sixth Forms

The academic level of graduate recruits to the teaching profession—assessed by the class of degree they took—has been considerably lower in the last two decades than it was in the thirties, says the Report. The proportion of men with first-class degrees falls steadily as one descends the age scale, though there has been some recovery in the last few years. The schools, therefore, are not maintaining their “intellectual capital.” This position is more pronounced among graduates in mathematics and science than in other subjects.

Broadly speaking, the same can be said of women graduates, though the figures are in general less satisfactory. Fewer graduates are teaching and fewer have good degrees. A sharper decline in quality is evidenced. The outstanding difference between men and women graduate teachers is that the average of the women is much less.

The report emphasizes that it is “necessary to do more than is being done to attract men and women of the highest intellectual calibre into teaching.” It is also necessary to ensure that there is no unnecessary waste or extravagance in the way in which teachers capable of teaching sixth forms are employed.

The Council endorse the principle of specialization, or study in depth, in sixth forms, but are unhappy about some of the ways in which it is now operating. For instance, science syllabuses make considerably heavier demands than they used to do, and need reconsidering, not only subject by subject but as a whole, from the aspect of the science sixth “specialist curriculum.”

Technical Challenge

Dealing with the proportion of pupils who leave school at 15 or 16 but who continue in some form of further education—about a quarter of the age-groups—the report says there are two sound reasons for a great advance in this field. The first is the need to produce far greater numbers of technicians and craftsmen—as distinct from technologists; and the other is “the need to raise the proportion of the whole population that continues in education after the age of 16.”

The proportion of 17-year-olds in full-time education, including sandwich courses, is now only 12 per cent of the total. “We recommend that the objective of policy should be to raise it to 50 per cent within twenty years from now.”

The Council have carried out a special study of part-time courses which make up the bulk of further education at the present time. They consider that shortage of time makes it difficult for them to serve any broader educational purposes beyond the immediate vocational object in view. There is a heavy rate of failure and retardation, two of the most important causes of this being reliance on evening classes and inadequate grounding in mathematics.

The Council's main recommendations for the expansion of further education fall under three heads: more integration between school and further education, more time for all courses of further education, and a more systematic approach to the development of “practical” education.

Teachers

The report emphasizes that an increased supply of teachers will be necessary on account of the raising of the school leaving age and to improve the quality of work done in the schools, especially by reducing the size of classes. Staffing ratios are still a long way from what is desirable, and there are too many over-large classes. There is also great variation in this problem found in different parts of the country. It is recommended that the National Advisory Council on the Training and Supply of Teachers should be asked to advise on the teacher supply problem involved.

Several suggestions are made by the Council to meet these demands. For example, special attention might be paid to providing financial incentives to satisfy the needs of older men and women who are attracted to teaching as a career, and to seeing that the terms and conditions of employment for married women teachers are also attractive; an energetic campaign aimed at recruiting more university graduates, to combat vigorous competition from other professions; the institution of short-service engagements wherever practicable; a sustained effort to economize in teaching capacity by relieving teachers of clerical and routine tasks in school; and an attempt to discover by experiment whether financial incentives to teachers to encourage them to serve in the “difficult” shortage areas would be effective. The Council point out that with high age-groups and increased size of sixth forms and universities, there ought to be good possibilities of expanding teacher recruitment.

CHILD HEALTH AND THE SCHOOL (Continued from page 4)

In most schools in *India* a course in hygiene is compulsory. In addition, in all girls' schools nutrition is taught and there are home economics courses for girls from 7 years of age through high school. In the social sciences environmental hygiene and public health are emphasized.

In *Iran* a special course in health exists for all children above the age of 13. For children below this age, health is taught with other sciences. The teaching of health includes the theoretical principles of nutrition and sanitation (including immunization and prevention of disease).

In *Italy* one hour weekly of health education is provided for both boys and girls in the secondary schools.

In *New Zealand* health teaching is a separate subject in primary schools (up to 13 years), but aspects of it are dealt with incidentally or formally in association with English, Social Studies, Nature Study, Physical Education, Homecraft and even Arithmetic and other subjects.

Methods used to teach about health include: informal and incidental reference to health and safety; formal lessons; projects, centers of interest; demonstrations and pupil participation in real life situations (e.g., visits to schools by traffic officers, and school traffic patrols, Plunket baby nurses); talks by visiting specialists.

In most post-primary schools health teaching constitutes a section of the physical education syllabus, but, in addition, some aspects of health are covered in General Science, Homecraft, Biology, and informally during other subjects and in student counseling.

In *Thailand* health teaching includes:

For a child of 7 years:

Training in daily health habits: washing one's hands and feet; brushing teeth and shampooing hair; training in the proper behavior for sneezing, coughing, etc.; learning to eat useful foods and drink clean water; learning to keep oneself and accommodations clean; examination of students' health

YOUNG gardeners in Danli, Honduras, get acquainted with healthful foods. (UNICEF Photo)



in general and keeping records of weight, height and other necessary data.

For a child of 11 years:

Learning to keep oneself physically fit, especially as concerns diet, fresh air and water; learning the value of exercise and rest; learning to care for the body; learning about diseases caused by flies, mosquitoes, and rats; how to destroy insects and animals; prevention of epidemic diseases such as cholera, tuberculosis, and malaria; accident prevention at school, at home, in the streets and playgrounds.

For a child of 15 years:

Proper food for children and patients; danger of alcohol and narcotics; functions of body organs; need for exercise and appropriate forms; healthful conditions in school, at home and in public places; prevention of accidents and safety care for others.

The classroom teacher is usually responsible for teaching health. Emphasis is placed upon it in social studies and science classes. There are trips to a health center, school and community clean-up days, and emphasis on vaccination against cholera and typhoid.

Hong Kong indicates that all teachers are expected to contribute a share to health teaching despite the fact that the subject is not yet placed in the curriculum. In *Yugoslavia* the attention of 15 year old children is directed to studying, among other things, the importance and objectives of physical education for the worker.

Nine additional associations indicated that health teaching is given varying degrees of emphasis in such subjects as domestic science, natural science, hygiene, social science and industrial arts.

Special emphasis through direct teaching is placed upon personal health, nutrition, accident prevention and traffic safety in *Canada*. *Luxembourg* indicated that some health teaching is done through the study of French and German.

Education in road or traffic safety is included in the curriculum in at least some of the schools in *Belgium, England, Gambia, India, Italy, Luxembourg, and the United States*. In *Switzerland*, at intervals of two or three years in some cantons, specially trained staffs of the police visit the schools and teach an effective course in traffic safety.

The Role of the Teacher

Many countries require periodic health examinations for teachers, especially for tuberculosis, and several say teachers may be given X-ray examinations at the time they are given to school children. Sick leave is common practice, and in many countries the amount is generous. The period allowed



COUNTRY schoolhouse in Jamaica is sprayed to keep out malaria-carrying mosquitoes. (UNICEF Photo)

varies considerably (from 10 days to 18 months). Usually full pay is granted for a period, then part of pay for a further period. Insurance systems are in operation in at least 5 countries. Maternity leave of two to four months is granted under free medical plans in several countries.

Retirement with pension due to disability or superannuation is common at the age of 55 in some countries, after 30 years of service in others. Payment of pension is by the year and/or in a lump sum. For service under 30 years the amount is reduced proportionately.

A majority of the organizations replying indicated that courses in health and physical education combined or health education alone are given in pre-service training. In *India* every teacher who is trained gets a course in School Hygiene and the syllabus is quite comprehensive. This ensures efficient teaching on health in schools and cooperation between the teachers and school health personnel. In *New Zealand* courses in physical education and

health education are compulsory in all teacher training colleges. Information is given about the function of school health and other related services. The importance of the closest cooperation between teachers, parents and all specialist services is emphasized.

The problem of keeping teachers up to date and helping them to improve on the job seems to be worldwide. Most of the countries reporting indicate that some in-service help is given to improve health teaching; however, the help given extends from what seems to be hearing an occasional lecture to close cooperation among all interested parties, as reported by *New Zealand*, and constant nearby in-service education in a teacher-training institution, as in the *Republic of China*.

Regarding the improvement of pre-service health education of teachers, several countries responded that they were satisfied with the education their teachers are now receiving. Several others said that all teachers should become proficient in school health and hygiene, and that such education should be required. One country suggested that every teacher in post primary schools should have one or two years of adolescent psychology. In *England* and *Wales* it has been proposed that teacher-education institutions make more use of personnel from the special services, such as medical officers and school health visitors, who have expressed a desire to cooperate more in the education of teachers.

Action of Teacher Organizations

Almost every organization which provided a report responded to the question of what organizations can or should do in relation to child and teacher health. All thought organizations should be active in these areas; some are already doing a great deal to develop cooperation between the necessary agencies to provide needed health teaching and services.

For instance, the New Zealand Education Institute has worked for 80 years to establish medical and dental services and a health program in the schools. After the Second World War, it published a booklet, "Educational Reconstruction," to re-establish coordination of teachers, parents, and medical and dental services.

The All *India* Federation of Educational Associations has special sections on (1) Child Education and (2) School Health. They are effective in drawing the attention of school authorities toward child care and systematic medical and dental examinations in all schools.

Among activities which countries suggested for organizations were

(a) at the *local level* to:

Devise programs to improve working conditions and services for teachers.

Instigate fact-finding investigations into the field of child health.

Stimulate the parents' interest in child health.

Establish health committees to promote "Health of children, teachers and other school officials."

Organize seminars, institutes, or workshops for teachers during the year and in the summer.

Strive to make all teachers proficient in health and hygiene and to make schools a model of good health for the community.

(b) at the *national level* to:

Establish health committees to promote "Health of children, teachers, and other school officials."

Guarantee that secondary school teachers have one or two years of adolescent psychology.

Work towards the better preparation of school nurses and towards more effective mental health services.

Provide fellowship for teachers to study or vacation abroad and then apply their acquired knowledge to the situation in the home country.

Act as an information center to the local or national authorities concerning what is happening in the school health field in other countries, and help in selecting programs applicable to the home country.

Hold annual seminars at the national level on health problems.

(c) at the *international level* to:

Draw up schemes of (i) minimum requirements and (ii) future aims for health education and circulate them to constituent bodies of WCOTP.

Distribute and exchange publications among national members.

Provide fellowships for teachers between nations.

Hold international seminars for primary teachers, such as have been held for upper-level teachers (WHO and Unesco).

Establish a Health Committee at the international level to bring information into a country, interpret national health problems, and advise on bringing together the various agencies and groups.

Request WHO to offer more help to mental health associations.

THE SCHOOL AND THE WORLD OUTSIDE

by JAMES CRAIGIE

An excerpt from an address delivered by the President of the Educational Institute of Scotland, given at the 74th Congress of the Institute at Edinburgh on December 29, 1959. The full address appeared in the January 1960 issue of The Scottish Educational Journal.

THE SCHOOL AND THE WORLD OUTSIDE. By how many of us and how often are these two seen almost as separate universes? They exist side by side, it is true, but since each has its own laws of being and pursues its own aims and ideals in seeming independence of the other, they are dissociated from each other in our thoughts.

Yet this dissociation, this dichotomy, though it may at times be useful, is—as we all know in our heart of hearts—false and misleading and must be rejected. The school is in the world and is of it and exists to serve it, and its staff are as much members of the world without as of that within. That being so, the school cannot avoid the pressures of the world outside, though it is always open to it to determine when and how far it is willing to yield to them. For, after all, it is in the life lived in the world outside that the school finds its origin, its explanation, and its justification.

For some time now many members of the teaching profession have been perturbed over two things: over time spent by them in what are termed “extraneous duties,” and over the time spent by pupils outside the classroom. Some of the things which take up the time of the teacher and seem to employ it unproductively are: the collection of school savings, where this is still continued; the collection of the charges for school meals; the distribution of milk in school; the distribution of pupils’ medical cards; the completion of Y15 Forms for the Ministry of Labour’s Youth Service, and so on. None of these is perhaps in itself so very time-consuming, but in the aggregate they can occupy a fair amount of time, with a corresponding loss of time for instruction, which therefore proceeds more slowly, and the teacher then feels that the class is falling behind.

The time lost by pupils includes: visits—more than one is usually needed—to the school dentist for dental treatment; a visit, or visits, to the school

oculist for sight-testing; visits to the school doctor for injections against poliomyelitis; attendance at mass radiography sessions for the detection of pulmonary tuberculosis; attendance at visits to the school by members of the traffic police for lectures on Highway Code and demonstrations on road safety; attendance on the Youth Employment Officer who visits school at regular intervals to interview schools leavers; visits to a swimming pond for instruction in swimming and life saving, and again we can add, and so on.

Everyone will readily admit that all these are things well worth doing but again all of them are time-consuming and demand the withdrawal of the pupils affected from the classroom with a consequent loss of instruction on their part and a slowing up of progress on the part of all. It is little wonder then if teachers feel doubly frustrated by this intrusion of the world outside into what they regard as exclusively their sphere and resent the time taken from what they regard as their proper work.

But may we not have here evidence of a new and a wider conception of what the function of the school in the life of the community is? In the past, the school was identified almost solely and exclusively with the intellectual development of the pupil. Now it is seen that his physical welfare and his general health are also the concern of society, for nearly all the things I have mentioned have to do with either or both of these. They may be regarded as a branch of preventive medicine and since the whole school population is being watched and treated, the school is the most natural place where these operations can be carried out; every child is to be found there and none is overlooked. Education, or instruction in the older sense, is becoming only one aspect of a developing child welfare service and of this the school is the natural focus and center. Yet though formal education may not in the future be the only activity carried on there, it must continue to be the most important one and the one to which most time is given, since that is the primary function of the school.

In fact, advantage is being taken of the school as advantage is being taken of the Post Office by the Government. Its earliest function was the handling

of the mail and that is still its largest and most important function, but in the course of time its activities have been so widened that now it transacts a great variety of business of the most diverse nature and is in fact the office through which the state conducts most of its business with the taxpayer and the general public. That came about because there were post offices in every town and village and nearly everybody made some use of them from time to time. It was therefore easier to put new duties on them than to set up new offices to deal with the increasing contacts which the private citizen was coming to have with the state. The same has happened with the schools. The analogy, of course, does not fit at all points—no analogy ever does—but I think it makes my point clear.

All the services that center in the school have this in common, that their aim is to fit the young of the nation to take their place in adult society. The care taken over their physical well-being is intended to avoid as far as is possible their becoming a burden to themselves and to the community through ill-health. The Youth Service is there to place them as far as is humanly possible in employment for which their abilities, aptitudes and interests fit them, so that they may be useful members of the community, contributing as much to it as they receive from it. The school is there to provide them with a knowledge of the national inheritance into which they will enter, to foster their growth in body, spirit, mind and feeling, and to give them the skills which they will need to earn their living when their schooldays are past.

I have mentioned earlier some of the continuous and almost unnoticed pressures which the outside world exercises on the world of the school; but there are others, open and equally sustained, for in Scotland there is still an intense interest in education which from time to time expresses itself in forcible criticism of what the observer thinks needs reformation. Some of that criticism we may think shortsighted and narrow, as when the products of the Scottish educational system are faulted for bad spelling and poor handwriting. It would be possible to teach every child to spell at call every word in the dictionary and to write copperplate from his schooldays on. But the time and energy required to achieve this end would be so great that something like the Law of Diminishing Returns would come

into play, for the end desiderated could not be attained without the sacrifice of other things of equal or even greater value. After all, being educated means much more than being able to spell correctly and to write copperplate; but such a statement does not deny the importance of being able to spell well and write legibly.

Or the criticism may appear misguided, as when the school is told that it concentrates too much on the teaching of facts and neglects to train its pupils to think for themselves and to be good at solving problems. Several fallacies raise their heads here. There is no such activity as thinking by itself; we must think about something, and that means we must have facts on which to base our thinking about that particular subject. Moreover, such a criticism seems to imply that all thinking is of the same type, that of mathematical reasoning. But this is not so. The artist does not think like the mathematician, and neither does the musician or the poet; and each of their ways of thinking is legitimate.

Further, solving problems is not the chief end or major pre-occupation of men and women in their daily lives, and when they do have problems to solve, these are seldom presented in the artificially created form in which the problems of the schoolroom are cast. The most serious and the most numerous problems which ordinary men and women have to face are problems of conduct, and here, though the school can provide the principles on which conduct must be based, it cannot ensure that these principles will always be followed by everyone. If it could, there would be no delinquency, no crime; no sin. Yet this aspect of the work of the school is becoming increasingly more important since, with the decline in the influence of the Church and of parental control, the school has willy-nilly to take over—for there is no other organization to do it—more of the moral and ethical training which the family and the Church once discharged.

Yet, when all criticisms have been made and all misunderstandings examined and so far as possible removed, this can be safely said: that never before in their history were the people of Scotland more acutely conscious of the value of the education provided by their schools, and never were they better served by the teaching staffs in these schools, despite the handicaps under which the teachers labor.

SECONDARY EDUCATION AND THE MODERN WORLD

by ROGER GAL

Adapted from the December 1959 issue of Unesco Chronicle. The author is adviser to the Ministry of National Education (France).

HISTORICALLY SPEAKING, secondary education was planned and organized as a preparation for the advanced education of a limited number of young people selected according to various criteria, ranging from their social origins to their individual merits. It was therefore a preparation for some of the higher avocations—the so-called liberal professions. It led to the university, as it still does.

The changes which have come about in the modern world have had the effect of making secondary education available to more and more young people. This process will continue, and secondary education will have to fill the requirements of an ever-increasing variety of careers. The force of circumstances and the pressure of changes in technology, science and the arts led to the establishment after the elementary stage of a number of educational courses of different lengths and varying institutions. Such courses were designed to meet the various demands of adult life in the industrial and commercial world today. In this way school education came to include training for the various vocations, which used to be provided within the framework of the vocations themselves, and the technical world of today now demands a very high standard of scientific and general education.

Secondary education is therefore torn between its old and new objectives; it is burdened with its own internal problems and with new branches of learning; it is striving to fulfil the complex requirements of a society in the throes of democratic expansion; it is overrun by large numbers of young people with different social backgrounds; and the pressure of all these powerful forces is sapping its strength.

For this reason, both its aims and its organization must be thought out afresh, and it must be adapted in a logical manner to meet both the new requirements in the field of professional training and the needs of present-day society.

The Adaptation Needed

It may be useful to distinguish the different reasons which have made it necessary for secondary education to re-adapt itself and alter its objectives.

The general principle is a simple one. We find it in the educational aspect of sociology, and in the lessons taught by the long history of education: a new type of society needs a new type of education. First, we must undertake a preparatory study of the relations between society and education from the economic, social, demographic, political and scientific points of view. This study should show how many persons qualified at different levels in the various vocations the community will need in the future. It should take into account, as scientifically as possible, the development of economic needs and show how tasks will have to be shared in the society of tomorrow—for the world is changing rapidly. It should reveal what knowledge and technical skills are needed in educating modern man if he is to play a useful part in active life and in adult society. It should also deal with the social and human implications of specialization. And since some of these branches of knowledge, such as sociology, psychology and pedagogy, are increasingly concerned with man and the education of the human race, it should pause to consider the effect which these modern ideas may have and should have on the matter and methods of education.

Intrinsic Objectives: Authentic Cultural Aims

The utilitarian aspect must be considered if education is to fit people for living. But there are also considerations of an entirely non-utilitarian nature, which are concerned with the culture and development of the individual for his own sake.

What sort of men and women should secondary education aim to produce? Should we not be training people to be more adaptable than hitherto to changes that have come to stay in society, work, knowledge, technology and culture, so that they may be capable of solving everyday problems, taking an active interest in social and political questions, getting the best out of their leisure time and continuing their education when they leave school?

Furthermore, it would be foolish to consider the utilitarian aspect of culture apart from the demands it makes on its own account; for as well as modifying the content of our knowledge, science has wrought a profound change in our ways of thinking and acting, and to some extent in our conception of man, his condition, and his position and responsibilities in the world and in society. This should have brought about a considerable alteration in our attitudes and in our behaviour as individuals and collectively. It ought to have developed our critical faculties, our understanding, our tolerance towards one another and our powers of cooperation. The place of science in school curricula, therefore, should not be dictated merely by utilitarian considerations, for it can also fulfill the most lofty and spiritual aims of mankind. In particular, if we are to preserve the idea of humanism (which owes its beauty to the word "human" contained in it), how can we neglect the human sciences and affront humanity by being interested only in ancient forms of culture?

It would therefore be valuable to examine the aims of education in relation to society and in relation to culture and to education as such.

External Objectives

In relation to the first point, we might consider economic, technical, scientific and social requirements. Society today needs social leaders in far greater numbers than hitherto, as well as more leaders in science and technology. Mechanization in its early stages appeared to be encouraging the lower grades of workers to perform their tasks in a completely mechanical way, as if they were a chain-gang. In the second stage, they are more and more controlled by the machine. Automation will end by making them completely insignificant. This does not apply to new countries which are as yet technically underdeveloped; they may make the transition to automation directly, and more easily than highly developed countries. In any case, it is a question worth considering.

In this connection, it is of interest to note the economic and social objectives referred to in the following passage taken from the French report of the Langevin Commission:

In the last half-century (in France), the organization of education has remained fundamentally the same. But there have been rapid developments and basic changes in the structure of society. Mechanization, the use of new sources of energy, the development of means of transport and communication, the intensification of in-

dustry, increased production, the participation of large numbers of women in economic life for the first time, the extension of elementary education—all these factors have brought about a marked change in living conditions and in the organization of society. In 1880, because of the rate and scope of economic progress, elementary education had to be extended to the working classes. Now, for the same reason, we are faced with the problem of recruiting more and more trained staff and technicians. . . . In view of the new demands of modern economic conditions, our educational system will have to be remodeled completely since its present form is no longer suited to economic or social conditions.

The logical results of such a situation are that secondary education must be extended to youth in general, education must be democratized, technical, scientific and economic training must be included in secondary education and traditional curricula must be amplified. Can there be any objection to giving more people the advantage of education and culture? Is any nation to be denied the right to assist its people to develop themselves to the full and to raise the level of its community life?

Civic Objectives

What of our desire to train enlightened citizens—people with equal civic responsibilities, who are capable of giving an opinion on any national or international question concerning economic, social, political and cultural affairs, as they must be able to do if they are to read a daily paper intelligently, and as the use of the franchise implies? If we are to realize this modest ambition, we must see to it that people have enough knowledge of geography, history, economics and social affairs to enable them to grasp the implications of such questions, that their critical faculties and powers of logical judgment are such as to arm them against the evasions and enticements of propaganda, and that they have sufficient social morality to put into practice those principles of community spirit and self-control which are indispensable in a democratic society. Can these ambitions be called utilitarian? Granted that man is—as the well-known saying goes—"a social animal," does not the fulfillment of such ambitions require that people living in democratic societies in our day should be educated? In any case, the democratic revolution must be worked out in our lives more than it has in fact been hitherto, and this means that culture in general must be widened so that everybody may have a chance to consider these questions; for it is one

of the principles of democracy that all people, both men and women, have equal responsibilities, equal abilities and equal rights. Is it too much to say that in the past no type of secondary education really provided this sort of education for everybody? Yet this should be the most general, the most universal factor in any form of education at the present time.

Leisure for Continued Education

Another result of the technical and industrial revolution has been the increased amount of leisure resulting from higher productivity. In highly developed countries, the machine has shortened working hours and made it possible for people to begin their active lives at a later age, and therefore to stay at school longer. Modern man, therefore, has more and more opportunity for leisure. And at the same time educational facilities for adults have improved. This means that education in suitable forms may be continued throughout practically the whole of a man's life, so that the continuous education of human beings is an actual possibility. Does this not mean that we should change many of the aims of secondary education? For, if modern man should be trained to make better use of his leisure, if he should be encouraged to continue his education rather than be forced to absorb facts once and for all in his youth, then major changes are called for both in the matter and in the methods of our secondary education.

Looked at in this way, the cinema, the plastic arts, music, television, the theatre, reading, sport, intelligent travel, social background studies, manual work—all these are seen to be of prime importance. It becomes just as important to be able to use these cultural media as to have specialized knowledge in any branch of technology, science or literature.

The Man of Action

Traditional education has often failed to take into account certain important aspects of the personality. In some countries it has paid no attention to character training; in others, it has failed to educate the man of action. This was perhaps due to the complete separation between practical training and theoretical education, or perhaps because traditional education inherited a kind of contempt for any activity that was not purely intellectual; the idea of culture was not thought applicable to these types of man's activity. Yet surely is not a humanism that ignores the largest part of our lives quantitatively speaking—the time we spend at work

—seriously deficient? Contemplation, no doubt, has its own virtues, yet it is evident that if thought is not translated into action, or if theory is isolated from practical realities, there is a danger that they will become mere formalities and empty words. To what extent should secondary education in our day combine theoretical education with a degree of practical training? How far should it cover the application of science as well as science itself, and seek to offset the intellectual, abstract and verbal aspects of education by providing contact with nature and with real life? Only thus can secondary education remain balanced, authentic, effective and complete. And if that is so, to what extent is it desirable that we should remove the barriers between the different types of training—technical and theoretical, specialized and general, vocational and intellectual?

Training Men for Tomorrow

It must also be remembered that, while the main task of education has been, and still is, to transmit the heritage of the past in all its forms—literature, art, science, technology, etc.—yet in this rapidly changing world it is no longer enough to train the men of tomorrow in the light of the problems of the past. Their training must enable them not to solve yesterday's problems, but to understand the true nature of the problems of their own day, to know how to approach them and what methods to use in solving them. This involves choosing not only the subjects to be taught at this level, but also the teaching methods to be used. For if we want to train young people to be ready for the future, then more time must be found for the sciences, modern art and literature and the current problems of the day. At the same time, reference to the past will not be omitted in the sciences and in technology nor in literature and the arts; for it is only through such references that the adolescent can realize that mankind is constantly creating, constantly solving its problems, and that science itself is a sort of unending conquest, the issue of which is never final. Then again, if the methods adopted are really activity methods—that is, provided they do not merely provide young people with ready-made definite knowledge, but encourage them to collaborate in working things out, and through rediscovering knowledge to develop these qualities by which the spirit of man has progressed—then they may well encourage youth to acquire that creative approach which will enable mankind to continue its forward march.

Local, National and International Objectives

To what extent should the various countries, especially the countries which are least developed technically, accept these new objectives which we have been examining from the point of view of their complete development? This is an important question; and because the circumstances of the various nations differ so greatly, it is not easy to suggest an answer that will be correct in all cases.

Some countries have their own cultural tradition, or wish to rediscover it. Others have been obliged to adopt a foreign tradition—the colonies, for example, which have taken over the culture of the home country, and sometimes even its language. And, of course, there are special problems connected with the fact that countries hitherto under protection are attaining their independence, and are experiencing a rapid growth of population.

Yet it appears to be true that, so far as the non-utilitarian, purely human values are concerned, our aims should remain what they have always been, whatever their basis. When we come to social and economic requirements, the question is more difficult. There are wide differences between production levels and between living standards. It will be necessary gradually to determine the amount and type of secondary education to be given at the level that can be reached. It is open to question, however, whether these countries should not also try to attain the highest possible technical development very quickly. For they will be adopting highly developed techniques, and, as they are not under the disadvantage of possessing previously installed equipment and machinery, they will possibly achieve automation sooner than some of the older countries.

In any case, it is clear that the principle is valid in all cases—that so far as possible secondary education should be adapted to the social conditions prevailing and to the stage in the development of the country at which the pupils are to live. This is essential if it is to be effective.

This is only one aspect of the over-all problem of adapting secondary education to suit regional and national conditions. The problem also arises within countries which are highly developed as a

whole, but the different regions of which develop at different rates, so that in some parts of the country an artisan economy is still to be found, whereas other regions or other types of industry are technically developed.

As a general principle, it may be said that a degree of elasticity is desirable, so that secondary education may be adapted to suit local conditions—rural or urban, agricultural, industrial or artisan, as well as regional requirements and even the teachers available in the various localities. It is quite possible for uniformity and centralization to prevent adaptation and lead to stagnation, unless provision be made for diversity and for experimentation on different lines.

Countries which have just gained their independence will find that the question of national objectives involves problems which are sometimes very difficult, and which have a bearing on secondary school curricula. A country like Morocco, which has just produced school curricula combining very successfully the culture of the Moslem world with Western culture, is an excellent example of what can be done to reconcile the new traditions with the old.

For it must be remembered that in the world today the corollary of independence is interdependence and cooperation. History shows us clearly that technology, science and brotherhood are bringing men closer together, but that national morality is unfortunately lagging behind the potentialities of the modern world. If mankind is to survive, if peace is to prevail, we must get to know and understand each other, and, even more important, we must work together to secure better living conditions and opportunities for development for all. At the primary level, the child's outlook on the world is still somewhat restricted and essentially emotional; but at the secondary level it would be a crime against humanity to permit a merely national conception of history, geography, literature and the arts. And this means that the responsibility borne by secondary education in the future of the human race is all the more complex, all the more grave.

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THE JUNIOR COLLEGE: A U.S. PHENOMENON

Adapted from the January 1960 issue of the Carnegie Corporation of New York Quarterly.

AMID THE BEWILDERING DIVERSITY of American education is to be found a relatively new public institution whose own roles are so diverse as to be bewildering. Strictly a twentieth-century and American phenomenon, this institution, taken collectively, now enrolls almost a third of all college freshmen who are in public colleges and universities; it also offers educational opportunities to countless adults. It is to be found in most states of the Union, but unevenly distributed; it is almost absent from New England, while in one state, California, almost 50 per cent of its total enrollment is concentrated. The aims and abilities of its student body vary enormously; so do the types of educational programs it offers.

This institution is the junior college, or community college, or technical institute. By whatever name it is known, it is a two-year institution offering the 13th and 14th years of education—sometimes technical, sometimes academic, sometimes commercial—to a heterogeneous student body, while at the same time giving special adult courses and providing other community services.

The growth of the junior college, both public and private, has been extraordinarily rapid. It got its start at the turn of the century. By 1921 there were 207; by 1938, 575. In 1957, the total number had increased to 667. Although only 59 per cent of these are public, they contain 90 per cent of the total enrollment.

Paralleling their growth in numbers has been their growth in importance as a novel figure on the national educational scene and as a force influencing other parts of the higher educational system. In those states in which they are numerous, the public junior colleges, which generally must accept any high school graduate and charge little or no tuition, have had a profound effect on other institutions of higher education. A former president of the University of California declared flatly that "without the excellent junior colleges that have been developed," his university "would hardly have been able to establish and maintain its present high standards of admission and graduation . . . Certainly class size could not have been held to a

reasonable level, nor could the need for land and buildings been kept within bounds."

It is almost certain that within the decade ahead, by the end of which college enrollments may have doubled, the junior colleges will be playing an even more important role on the educational stage. What should that role be? Do the junior colleges really strengthen American higher education? Do they achieve their objectives? What are the best patterns of organization, finance, and control; how can their program be integrated with those of other institutions? What conditions are necessary if they are to perform a unique function?

These are some of the questions Leland L. Medsker, of the University of California's Center for the Study of Higher Education, sets out to answer in *The Junior College: Progress and Prospects*, published by the McGraw-Hill Book Company as part of the Carnegie Series in Education. The Center is financed with Carnegie funds.

Dr. Medsker's book is based on a study of 76 public two-year institutions in 15 states, chosen to reflect a variety of organizational patterns. An astonishing variety does exist, but three patterns are the most common. In the first case, the junior or community college is locally controlled and supported, with or without state aid. In the second, the junior college or technical institute is wholly controlled and supported by the state. In the third case, the two-year college is actually an extension center of a four-year college or university. Even within individual states the patterns vary; in some states two or more patterns are in operation at the same time.

Rivaling and in fact surpassing other organizational patterns in terms of diversity are the declared purposes of the junior colleges. Most of the two-year colleges claim to be comprehensive, offering lower-division work for students who plan to transfer later to four-year institutions while at the same time offering "terminal" programs for those who do not plan to transfer. Most of them also stress adult education, special community services, guidance, remedial work for many students, and general education.

However organized and whatever its declared purposes, there is no doubt that the public junior college as an institution has served to provide greater equality of educational opportunity. There is almost

nothing to bar any youngster who lives in a town where one is located from getting at least two years of education beyond high school—and he can choose the kind of education he wants to get. Tuition, when it is charged, is very low; some states, California for one, charge none at all. The fact that the student can live at home also gives the junior college an economic advantage over other institutions, even state universities where tuitions are low but where a student has to pay transportation and living costs.

What Professor Medsker refers to as “the democratization of higher education” is served by the junior college in another important way: it permits some students to enter college when their academic backgrounds would preclude their entering other institutions with higher admission standards. This is particularly striking in the case of California, where in 1955 only 11.4 per cent of the graduates of California high schools met the requirements for enrolling at any of the eight campuses of the University of California, and where 56.4 per cent were not eligible to attend either the University or the state four-year colleges. (It should be remembered that a cause-and-effect relationship is in operation here, since, as was pointed out earlier, the University was able to maintain extremely high standards only because of the outlets provided by the junior and state colleges. Many—perhaps most—state universities are required to admit all high school graduates.)

By offering a great variety of educational programs, the junior colleges have actually broadened the total scope of offerings available at the college level. For those students who come for two years of study and training that will prepare them to work at a job or at homemaking, many different courses, which frequently are geared to local industries, are available. For those who wish to transfer later to a four-year college, courses equivalent to lower division programs may be had. These Professor Medsker sees as the junior colleges’ two most important roles: to train semi-professional and skilled technicians for employment, and to screen students who are capable of higher study for the colleges and universities. This second function is as important as the first, for, although many people think the junior college exists primarily to serve the poorer students, Dr. Medsker’s study reveals that there is a great overlap between the abilities of students in two-year and four-year institutions.

What is more, those junior college students who do transfer later do very well as a whole in their upper division work.

Although most of the junior colleges lay heavy stress on the terminal programs they offer, only about one-third of the students register in such courses. Two-thirds declare that they intend to transfer later to four-year institutions; yet on the average only one-third actually do so. The discrepancy points up a major necessary function of the junior college: to provide opportunities and guidance for the large numbers of students who, for whatever reasons, do not achieve their original stated aim—to transfer. Whether their academic abilities do not accord with their academic aspirations, whether they are subject to parental pressures, whether they are simply victims of the confusion in aims common to young people—these students deserve thoughtful guidance to enable them to make sound educational and vocational decisions.

Dr. Medsker finds it impossible to generalize about how well the junior colleges perform this critical function. To do it well they need a good guidance program coordinated with a student activity program, a good records system, and continuous study of student motivations and characteristics. In some colleges such student personnel services are a strong point, but not in all. Without them, Dr. Medsker emphasized, the value of the two-year college in higher education is thrown into question.

The future of the junior college, which one way or another will be decided within the next ten years as the student boom reaches its peak, depends to a large extent on how certain issues pertaining to all higher education are resolved by the public and by the states. We must decide whether to expand the capacities of the four-year colleges, or to decentralize education by making greater use of two-year colleges, or both. Most study commissions to date have called for some kind of decentralized plan.

“No unit of American higher education is expected to serve such a diversity of purposes, to provide such a variety of educational instruments, or to distribute students among so many types of educational programs as the junior college,” says Dr. Medsker. The states and the public must make a conscious search for ways to strengthen it if it is to continue to serve as an equalizer of educational opportunity.

PRINCIPLES OF A SALARY POLICY

by SHALOM LEVIN

The Secretary General of the Israeli Teachers' Union here enunciates the policy of his organization in regard to teachers' salaries. Translated from Hebrew and adapted from the January 7, 1960, issue of the Union's weekly, Hed-Hahinukh.

● OUR POLICY on salaries is based on three principles. The first one is this. The salary of the educational worker should be determined by his qualifications, not by the kind of educational institution which employs him. We make no distinction between an elementary school teacher and a secondary school teacher, between a teacher in a general secondary school and his colleague in an agricultural or vocational school or even in a teachers' college. In our opinion, every country—and our country especially—should maintain an attitude of equality towards all grades of education. In Israel it would be difficult, indeed, to determine which is more important for the future of the people and their integration: the kindergarten, the primary school or the secondary school. They supplement each other. Both State and people desire educational workers in all levels of education to be in possession of the highest and widest erudition possible. We conclude, therefore, that salaries, through which the public appreciation is expressed, should be based on the extent of the teacher's training and not on the nature of the school where he is employed.

The second principle says: teachers shall receive salaries no smaller than those received by engineers, agronomists, architects, lawyers' or others who are their equals in schooling and seniority.

The third principle declares: the existing gap between the salary of a teacher with 14 years of preparation and the salary of an academic teacher with 15 or 17 years of preparation is quite sufficient, and should not be widened further.

A thorough examination of the situation throughout the world and in our country has confirmed me in my views. Is Israel really the only country which maintains a "single scale of salaries" for all grades of education? My reply to this question is in the negative. We have adopted this system from one of the most progressive countries in the field of education, particularly secondary education, namely, England. This system is customary in 80 to 90 per cent of U.S. educational institutions; it also exists

in a large Asian country which was formerly under British influence, India, and in many more countries.

British educators ponder these days over the problem of freezing the child's future trend of study at age 11 but, so far as I know, there exists no opposition—even on the part of secondary teachers—to a "single scale of salaries."

Let us draw the inferences for Israel. Our elementary schools need teachers with degrees. If an influx of academic teachers into our elementary schools does not take place, we shall face a deterioration in our standard of tuition. Why has this danger become more imminent now than previously? In former years, scholars from the Diaspora flowed into this country, representatives of Polish, Rumanian and Lithuanian Jewry, people with degrees from rabbinical schools, erudite men, who brought with them a vast amount of knowledge. We are well aware that this influx has come to a complete standstill. Scholars will no longer flow into our schools. There will be no influx either from Europe—after what happened there—or other regions. The universities now remain as the major source for producing teachers with a high level of knowledge. Is it possible that anyone should want to prevent an M.A. or B.A. from teaching in an elementary school by paying him a salary lower than that paid to the secondary school teacher? Would primary education benefit? Does concern for the future of secondary education necessitate such a measure? We fully believe that all education will benefit by drawing incessantly into all levels, among them the elementary school, teachers with the highest possible amount of training in as many fields of knowledge as possible.

With regard to salaries, the elementary school teacher should not be put on a lower level than the secondary school teacher, nor should a teacher's salary be raised when he transfers from an elementary to a secondary school. The choice between the elementary and the secondary school should be the result of the teacher's inclinations and propensities, of his ability to teach one age or the other; on no account should it be the outcome of salary calculations.

One may ask: is not our approach outdated? Are we trying to preserve some remnant of the former system when salaries were paid according to a

family scale? No, even in this respect the State of Israel does not tread any new paths. I have examined salary schedules submitted to the International Labour Office, and have received information from foreign teachers' unions, and now present you my conclusions. In Belgium, one can become a qualified teacher after one year of study at a teachers' college, provided one has completed secondary school. That means that in Belgium the preparation of an elementary school teacher lasts 13 years instead of 14 as in Israel. Nevertheless, the salary of a beginning teacher is 78 per cent that of a secondary one at first, and reaches 81 per cent at the height of seniority. The beginning elementary school teacher in Denmark receives 81 per cent at the height of seniority. In the German cantons of Switzerland, the rate is 83 per cent in the beginning and 85 per cent at the height of seniority. Even in Sweden, where the gap is a rather wide one, the rate is at the outset 77 per cent.

And what about the countries where a "single scale of salaries" exists? In England, the qualified teacher receives at the outset of his career 86 per cent of the salary of his colleague with a higher academic degree, and at the height of seniority, 91 per cent. I do not cite these figures for the sake of blind imitation, but in order to prove that the rate of 82 per cent, customary in our country, should not be increased.

Some colleagues have asked me about working hours. There exist different systems in various countries. In a few countries, the secondary school teacher teaches more hours per week than the elementary school teacher. Holland is one of these. In many countries the difference is smaller than in Israel. Among them are Belgium, West Germany, Iceland, Switzerland and the United States. There are also countries with bigger differences in working hours than our country. Great Britain, however, and countries which formerly belonged to the British Commonwealth, have established a uniform scale of working hours for all categories of education. In Great Britain both the elementary and

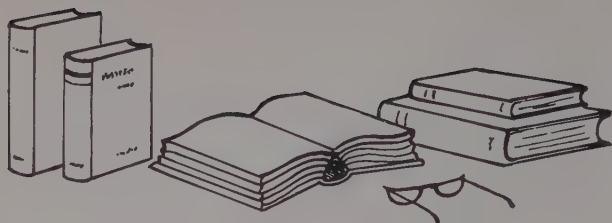
secondary educational workers teach 27½ hours per week.

What conclusion can be drawn from these facts? It is this. Conditions in Israel do not discriminate against secondary school teachers. Nobody will deny that the Anglo-Saxon world is progressive in the field of education, and there the differences between the salaries of elementary and secondary teachers are slighter than elsewhere. The existing differences here between the training of a teacher for secondary school work and elementary school work does not justify an increase in the rate. There is at present a difference of 6 working hours per week, 10 days of annual leave per year and 18 per cent in salaries. It seems to us, therefore, that no unprejudiced person can contend that an increase in salary differentials is justified.

In Israel we have not yet adjusted the salaries of teachers to those of other professionals in every respect. We cannot content ourselves with the initial scale for academic teachers. Thanks to the endeavors of the Teachers' Executive, the salary of the teacher is adjusted to the seventh category of engineers. This situation does not meet our requirements for two reasons: (1) It has become apparent that State-employed engineers do not start with category seven. Practically all government engineers are in category six or higher. Many engineers are even classified in a new category called A plus, so that the seventh category must be considered a fictitious one. (2) There is a big difference between beginning teachers and beginning engineers. A beginning engineer works for one or even two years under the guidance of seniors and is not directly responsible for the execution of plans. On the other hand, the teacher, as soon as he completes his studies, begins to teach by himself and becomes personally responsible for all achievements and drawbacks. One has to consider him, therefore, as an independent worker. We maintain, therefore, that the adjustment of the teacher's salary to the sixth category of engineers or the corresponding category of other professional workers would be fully justified.

The WCOTP has just published a 92-page document describing the structure and functions of salary negotiations machinery in 27 countries. Forty-six WCOTP national members supplied the information for this Report on Salary Negotiations Machinery for Teachers. Copies have been sent to

all WCOTP member organizations; non-member organizations and interested individuals may obtain copies for 50 cents each (or the equivalent in other national currency). The supply is limited. Please write to WCOTP, 1227 Sixteenth St., N. W. Washington 6, D. C.



BOOK REVIEWS

THE DISCOVERY OF ANCIENT AFRICA

by WILLIAM LEO HANSBERRY

More and more it becomes evident that teachers everywhere must acquire a knowledge of contemporary African life if they are to keep their students informed concerning current events. That life is rooted in a still dynamic past. It is the purpose of this article, written specially for Panorama, to throw some light on this fascinating past. The author is a professor of history at Howard University (Washington, D. C.) who has published many articles on African pre-history and archaeology.

DURING THE PAST CENTURY AND A HALF, archaeologists, paleontologists and specialists in historical and antiquarian research have discovered a vast number of historical records, monumental remains and other relics of the past which have thrown much light upon tropical Africa's history. Because of the scattered and technical character of most of the publications in which these discoveries were recorded, the public at large remained for many years unaware of their existence. As a consequence, knowledge of their significance was limited, in the main, to a small number of specialists.

In recent decades, however, a considerable number of publications have appeared in which the facts about Africa's past have been assembled, synthesized, humanized and published in such a manner as to make them accessible and comprehensible to non-specialists.

Most earlier syntheses were limited to a single geographical area but a few authors have endeavored to include most, if not all, of the principal regions of Africa in their efforts. Of the more ambitious of these inclusive surveys, the earliest, and perhaps the most influential, was Leo Frobenius' *Histoire de la Civilisation Africaine*. Next to this in time and influence were D. P. de Pedrals' *Archeologie de l'Afrique Noir*, published in Paris in 1950, and D. Westermann's *Geschichte Afrikas*, published in Cologne in 1952. Although these comprehensive surveys contain a vast amount of reliable information about human achievements in the African

tropics in earlier times, none of them presents a more inclusive and effective introduction to the long-forgotten civilizations of the mysterious continent than does Basil Davidson's new and very readable volume, *The Lost Cities of Africa*. (Little, Brown and Co., Boston. Also published under the title of *Old Africa Rediscovered* by Gollancz, London.) In fact, in no other book of comparable size in any language will there be found such a variety of facts and so much illuminating commentary about so many periods and aspects of tropical Africa's storied and unstoried past.

In the first chapter the author mentions briefly the remarkable proto-human and human fossils and associated cultural remains which have been discovered in South and East Africa during the last three decades, and which have caused most of the more recent students of human origins to conclude, as the author points out, that Africa—rather than Asia—was apparently not only the cradleland of the world's oldest cultures, but the birthplace of the earliest representatives of the human race.

In the next chapter the author comments at some length upon the vast number of monumental remains and other relics of the past which Griffith of Oxford, Reisner of Harvard, Garstang of Liverpool, and a score or more of other archaeologists brought to light in the course of their surveys and excavations at Napata, Nuri, Meroë and elsewhere in the Sudan. These relics mark the sites of the ancient capital cities and royal burial grounds of the once widely renowned but now almost totally forgotten kingdoms of Kush which were already hoary with age centuries before the dawn of the Christian era. Following the lead of Professor Sayce of Oxford, the author agrees that the size and number of iron-slag heaps which are still to be seen in the vicinity indicate that Meroë was indeed "the Birmingham of ancient Africa"; and—one may add—the Pittsburgh of ancient Kush. In summing up his own and other impressions of the monumental remains which are still to be seen at this old African metropolis, Mr. Davidson remarks that "the ruins of the ancient city

of Meroë are among the great monuments of the ancient world; and their history is an important part of the history of man." It is his opinion that the still largely-buried city is not only Africa's richest remaining archaeological site, but "perhaps the richest that yet remain in any part of the world."

In the next two chapters the author reviews some of the more notable events in the fascinating history of that remarkable aggregation of medieval peoples, cultures, kingdoms and empires which flourished in the vast West African area bounded by the Chad and the Niger basins on the north, and the valley of the mighty Congo on the south. After mentioning briefly the astonishing relics of ancient civilizations which have been brought to light by Lhote in the central Sahara, and by Fagg and others at Nok and elsewhere in northern Nigeria, attention is directed, first, to the modes of life, the methods of government, and the course of political events in the great empires of Ghana, Mali, Songhay, and Kanem-Bornu, as these matters are recorded, first, in the great *Tarikhs* by the Sudanese historians Mahmoud Kati and Abderrahman es Sd'di; second, in the eye-witness accounts of the great Moorish travellers, Ibn Batuta and Leo Africanus; third, in the geographical and historical writings of El Bekri, El Omari, and Ibn Khaldun, each a prominent Moslem scholar of his era.

Mr. Davidson directs special attention to what these Arab and Moorish writers have to say about the administration of justice and the respect for law and order in those medieval kingdoms. Ibn Batuta, who travelled widely in the Western Sudan in the middle of the 14th Century, and who writes, therefore, as an eyewitness, said that the inhabitants of Mali "are seldom unjust and have a greater abhorrence for injustice than any other people." Their king, he says, "shows no mercy to anyone who is guilty of what is in any wise an unjust act." In the kingdom "there is complete security" and no one, whether a native of the country or a foreigner, has "anything to fear from thieves, robbers or other violent persons."

Documentary sources of information are less abundant for the old kingdom and cultures which flourished in Guinealand and in the basin of the Congo and its environs, but archaeological and anthropological investigations relating to these kingdoms and cultures have been plentiful enough. Mr. Davidson has made effective use of these materials in his necessarily abridged review of the cultural and political history of these important areas of the great Continent. Of the many matters to which he

draws attention, none, perhaps, is quite so intriguing as those remarkable bronze and terra-cotta effigies of the human head which have been discovered in Old Benin City and in and around the ruined and mysterious Yoruban city of Ife—certainly one of the most promising archaeological sites in the whole of tropical Africa. The vast Congo area is now generally regarded as one of the most backward parts of the continent so far as native institutions are concerned, but Davidson points out that modern investigations have revealed that many of its indigenous peoples had long ago "achieved great stability and cultural distinction," had "conquered environment and learned to live at peace with it." A notable case in point is the remarkable Bushongo people who had fashioned for themselves a way of life which had enabled them to flourish and prosper in their Congo homeland for nearly a thousand years prior to their "discovery" by Europeans during the first decade of the twentieth century.

The next five chapters in this volume are devoted in the main to a comprehensive and analytical review of the historical and archaeological literature bearing upon the cultures and civilizations which covered practically the whole of eastern Africa from southern Ethiopia in the north to the Transvaal in the south, and whose history dates in time from the later centuries of historical antiquity to the earlier centuries of the modern era. As useful as are the other parts of Mr. Davidson's book, they are surpassed by these five chapters which so admirably summarize that part of the African story about which the world of the present knows the least.

How many teachers of history and geography in the schools and colleges of Europe and America have ever heard of ancient Azania, the cities of the Zanj, the kingdom of Sofala, and the empire of the Monomotapa? How many could write, out of information already in hand, a one-page theme on Great Zimbabwe, the Inyanga terraces, and the "Golden burials of Mapungubwe"? Perhaps not one in a thousand—or should it be—one in ten thousand? Yet each of these names or places has historical or geographical associations that are of primary importance in attempts to assess Africa's place in the age-old drama of the triumphs and failures of the human race. In no other single volume at present in print can the answers to these questions—and scores of others of like import—be more readily found than in Basil Davidson's *The Lost Cities of Africa*. Like most inclusive surveys of this type, the volume is not without its lapses and limitations, but it is withal a splendid work.

India, 5,000 years of Indian Art by Hermann Goetz. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. 1959. 275 pages. \$7.95.

Indonesia, The Art of an Island Group by Frits A. Wagner. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York. 1959. 257 pages. \$7.95.

The appreciation of classical Greek art in the Western world would be much less if Westerners were not so completely conversant (at least until recently) with all aspects of ancient Greek culture—its history, politics, philosophy and even language. These two books are based on the idea that a similar approach is valid for Eastern art; in fact, the full title of the series is “Art of the World, The Historical, Sociological and Religious Backgrounds.” Both books, therefore, begin by describing the climate, geography, earliest inhabitants, and mythology of the area, and branch on from there to wide-ranging discussions of all the influences which have gone into the making of art in India and the East Indies. These influences include music, literature, religious rites, dancing and economic changes.

Other new features of these volumes are their readiness to admit that the quality of this or that branch of art may vary, that it may hit low periods as well as high ones; and the inclusion of current artists and trends. On this point, attempts of native artists to retain their traditional orientation while accepting Western influences are treated sympathetically but realistically.

The books represent inter-cultural cooperation at its best. Issued by a U. S. publisher, the type was set in Holland, the illustrations were printed in Germany and many of the photographs were taken on the scene. The author of the book on India is professor of art history at the University of Baroda; Mr. Wagner is a staff member of the Royal Institute of the Tropics in Amsterdam.

The numerous illustrations are splendidly chosen and almost all of them are in color. They help considerably to establish “Art of the World” as a splendid trail-blazing series, whose volumes, considering their value, are quite moderate in price.

The African by William Conton. Little, Brown and Co., Boston. 1960. 244 pages. \$4.00.

A well-written novel describing the growth and schooling of a West African youth who becomes prime minister of his country. It combines a strong narrative drive with numerous valuable insights on the native African attitude toward English and European civilization, African nationalism, tribalism, industrialization and other aspects of the fast-changing continent of Africa.

Adult Education and European Co-operation by K. R. Stadler. A. W. Sythoff, Leyden. 1960. 91 pages, Dutch florins 5.50.

Despite its brevity, this is an astonishingly thorough and sensible survey of the ways and means used by adult education organizations in different countries to further the idea of European unity. Among topics covered are the length of courses, types of courses, the part played by radio, television and films, tourism and other special devices. In each case, advantages and disadvantages are discussed frankly and fully. The last chapter offers sound and constructive suggestions for improving present provisions. Published under the auspices of the Council of Europe, the book is one of a series that covers cultural, economic, political and social aspects of European integration.

India Today by Frank Moraes. The Macmillan Company, New York. 1960. 248 pages. \$4.00.

The paradox which confronts modern India—“to compromise with the past while moving boldly from the present into the future”—is the basic theme which Frank Moraes follows in *India Today*. A foremost Indian journalist, Mr. Moraes writes with perception and clarity of the “unity in diversity” of modern India. His account, interpretive yet objective, utilizes the many-faceted background of Indian history in order to understand modern developments and to predict the future. He analyzes the events leading to independence and partition; describes the Communist infiltration in Kerala; and discusses home and foreign policy, party politics and progress made in agriculture and industry. He presents a thoughtful discussion of leading public figures, including possible successors to Nehru. References to education are made only in passing.

The Politics of Soviet Education. Edited by George Z. F. Bereday and Jaan Pennar. Frederick A. Praeger, New York. 1960. 217 pages. \$6.00.

Eleven experts, sociologists and political scientists as well as educators, examine important aspects of Soviet education with perception and judgment.

Pictorial History of Philosophy by Dagobert D. Runes, Philosophical Library, New York. 1959. 406 pages, \$15.00.

Brief essays on the life and work of the world's major thinkers, from Buddha to Jean-Paul Sartre. Handsomely illustrated with nearly one thousand portraits and contemporary illustrations.

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HISTORY, OBJECTIVES AND ACTIVITIES OF WCOTP

The World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession is composed of 105 national members and numerous associate members representing millions of teachers in 60 countries. Its purpose is to enable members of the teaching profession at all stages of education to exert an influence corresponding to the importance of their social function.

It was founded at Copenhagen, Denmark, in 1952, in response to the desire of three international teachers' organizations to speak with a more united voice for the teaching profession. It now includes two constituent federations; national associations; associate member organizations (regional or local teacher associations, individual institutions of higher learning, societies for the scientific study of educational problems and the like); and international organizations that specialize in the field of education.

Since the Copenhagen meeting, the Delegates have met at Oxford, Oslo, Istanbul, Manila, Frankfurt, Rome, and Washington, D.C. A specific theme of prime interest to teachers is picked each year for discussion; it is discussed at the Assembly of Delegates and later published in a comprehensive report.

From modest beginnings the World Confederation has gradually expanded its scope of activities. Five subject-matter committees conduct research and plan programs in the field of educational journalism; rural education; education

for handicapped children; technical and vocational education; and adult education.

Committees on education in Asia and Africa were formed following an Afro-Asian Conference held in Ceylon in April 1958. An Asian regional meeting is being held in Kuala Lumpur in April of this year; and an African regional meeting in Kampala, Uganda in May. The world Assembly of Delegates is meeting in Amsterdam July 31-August 7. The principal subject for all three meetings is "Child Health and the School."

WCOTP has consultative status with the United Nations Economic and Social Council, Unesco, and FAO. In addition, it cooperates with other UN specialized agencies whenever their work relates, directly or indirectly, to education.

Its cooperation with Unesco is especially noteworthy. WCOTP national member associations have prepared materials for use in teaching non-political aspects of the work of the UN and related agencies, and have cooperated in publicizing the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

WCOTP publishes an annual report, which includes a summary of the proceedings of the Assembly of Delegates. Other publications are a quarterly dealing with international education and a monthly newsletter. All materials are published in English, French, and Spanish.

The WCOTP Secretariat is located in Washington, D. C. Other offices are in London, Paris and New Delhi.